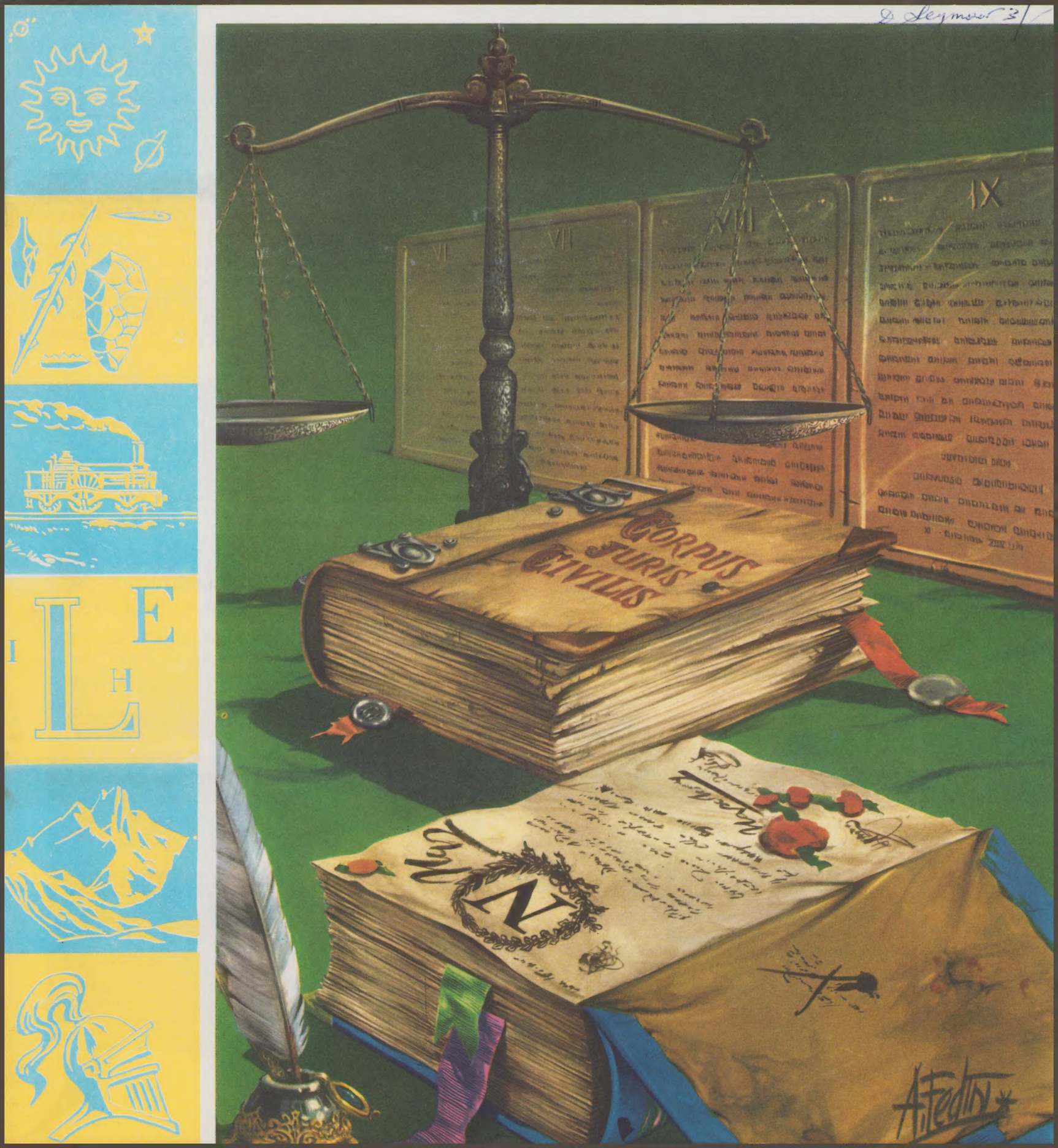
KNOWLEDGE

NO. 166 VOLUME 14 The colour magazine which grows into an encyclopaedia EVERY MONDAY 2/-



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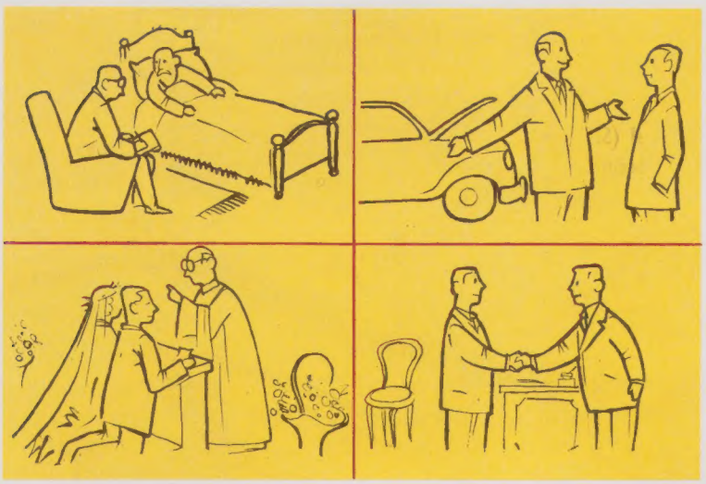
L A W

TODAY the law of a civilised nation is an extremely complex body of rules. We often associate the word 'law' with the maintenance of public order, as in the expression 'the strong arm of the law'. But law is concerned with much more than preserving public order. A great many of our simplest actions impose legal rights and duties on us which we may not realise exist. For example, if we buy a bar of chocolate in a shop, we enter into a legal contract with the shopkeeper, under which we are bound to pay for it. He is bound to sell us goods which are of reasonable quality, and we may sue him if the chocolate turns out to be defective. Driving a motor car, boarding a bus, or knocking over a bicycle are all occasions on which numerous rules of law govern our actions. And, of course, the law allows us to carry out many other more important transactions, such as making a will and getting married.



The actions shown above – making a will, buying a car, getting married, and making any form of contract – are all affected by the civil laws of the country in which we live

In creating laws, most societies are trying to express a deep-rooted sense of justice – and justice seems to be an instinct common to all communities of men. The idea of 'justice' is rather vague. Men have differed considerably, from age to age and country to country, in what they consider to be just and fair (see **Justice**). Nevertheless, some form of government is common to all communities, and governments have governed by means of laws.

The world has known two great systems of law, both of which have had a great effect on the development of society. They are Roman Law and English Law. **Roman Law,** drawn up into Codes by the great Emperor Justinian, is of great historical interest, since it regulated the greatest empire of the ancient world. But its real importance is that it is the system from which many modern countries have developed their laws. It is the origin of the law of most Western European countries, and thus of countries which they colonised, such as South Africa and the states of South America.

English Law, however, is not based on Roman Law. It was evolved in a practical manner by the judges and lawyers who administered and practised in the King's Courts. It was carried to those countries first colonised by the British. So it is to be found in operation as far afield as India, Australia, most of Canada and the United States, and in many African countries.

The sources of English Law

The constitutional law of Britain, unlike that of most countries, is not to be found written in any one source. Nevertheless, it is a settled and accepted constitutional principle that there are two bodies able to make law for the United Kingdom: the Legislature, and the judges of the Superior Courts.

The **Legislature** is the collective name given to the three governmental organs which must assent to an Act of Parliament (or Statute as it is also called) before it becomes law. These are the House of Commons, the House of Lords, and the Sovereign. The Royal Assent is now only formal, and the period during which the House of Lords can withhold its assent is limited in certain ways. Only the House of Commons may act as it pleases.

A **Statute** is now the general method of creating a new law and changing an existing one. It is the highest form of English Law, and it will invalidate earlier rules laid down by judges, if the two are in conflict. No judge can say that a Statute is not good law.

Very often the pressure to pass legislation is so heavy that Parliament passes an Act, which delegates certain specific

Anno Regni
GULIELMI
ET
MARIÆ,
REGIS & REGINÆ
Angliæ, Scotiæ, Franciæ & Hiberniæ,
PRIMO.

On the Sixteenth Day of *December*, *Anno Dom.* 1689. In the First Year of Their Majesties Reign, this ACT Passed the Royal Assent.

LONDON,
Printed by *Charles Bill* and *Thomas Newcomb*, Printers to the King and Queens most Excellent Majesties.
M DC LXXXIX.

(187)

Anno Primo
GULIELMI & MARIÆ.

An Act Declaring the Rights and Liberties of the Subject, and Settling the Succession of the Crown.

Whereas the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons Assembled at Westminster, Lawfully, Fully and Freely Representing all the Estates of the People of this Realm, did upon the Thirteenth day of February in the Year of our Lord One thousand six hundred eighty eight, Present unto Their Majesties, then called and known by the Names and Style of William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, being pre-

The first two pages of the Bill of Rights (1689), perhaps the most important English law ever passed, which made the king's power subservient to Parliament

Previous page: the scales, symbol of justice, and an artist's impression of three great collections of laws: three of the Twelve Tables of Roman law; the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, a 6th-century collection ordered by the Emperor Justinian; and the 1804 codification of French Civil Law, often referred to as the *Code Napoléon*.

THE PERCIFORM FISHES

EVERYONE who fishes in rivers and canals knows that handsome, lively fish, the perch; some anglers will know the smaller pope or ruffe as well. The most obvious feature that distinguishes both these from other fresh-water fishes, like the roach and bream, is the possession of a dorsal fin supported by a row of sharp spines.

These spines are an important characteristic in the classification of the great Superorder of fishes called the Teleostei, which is divided into two main groups: the soft-finned and spiny-finned fishes. Of the latter by far the largest subdivision or Order is the Perciformes or perch-like fishes, of which the perch is the most typical member. The Order contains several thousand species, the majority of which live in the sea, although there is a large number of fresh-water species, especially in the tropics.

The perciform fishes range in size from the giant swordfish and tunny down to the little goby, *Mistichthys luzonensis*, found in a lake in the Philippine Islands, which only grows to half an inch long, and is the smallest fish in the world.

Curious habits

With such a multitude of species to choose from, it is not surprising that we find instances among the Perciformes of curious habits and ways of life. Here are three examples.

Archer fish. This fish lives in river mouths in eastern Asia, and hunts in a most remarkable manner. It swims at the surface, and when it sees an insect at rest on overhanging vegetation it spits drops of water at it with great force and accuracy, and knocks it down; then it seizes and eats it.

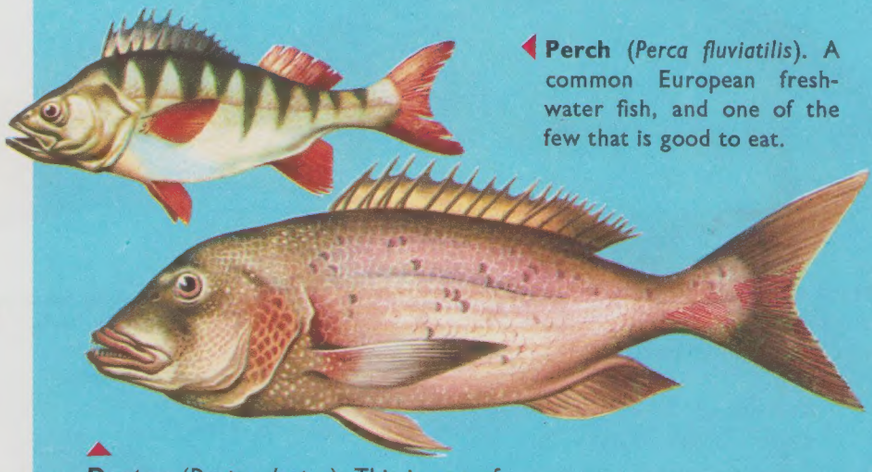
Mud skipper. These little fishes live on tropical shores, and spend the greater part of their time out of the water, crawling and hopping about on the mud or rocks. They breathe air by means of an organ in the gill-chamber.

Siamese fighting fish. These beautiful little fishes are favourites of aquarium keepers. When they breed the male blows a tiny floating nest of sticky bubbles for the eggs. The male then guards them until well after they are hatched, driving away all intruders, even their mother.

SOME WELL-KNOWN SPECIES

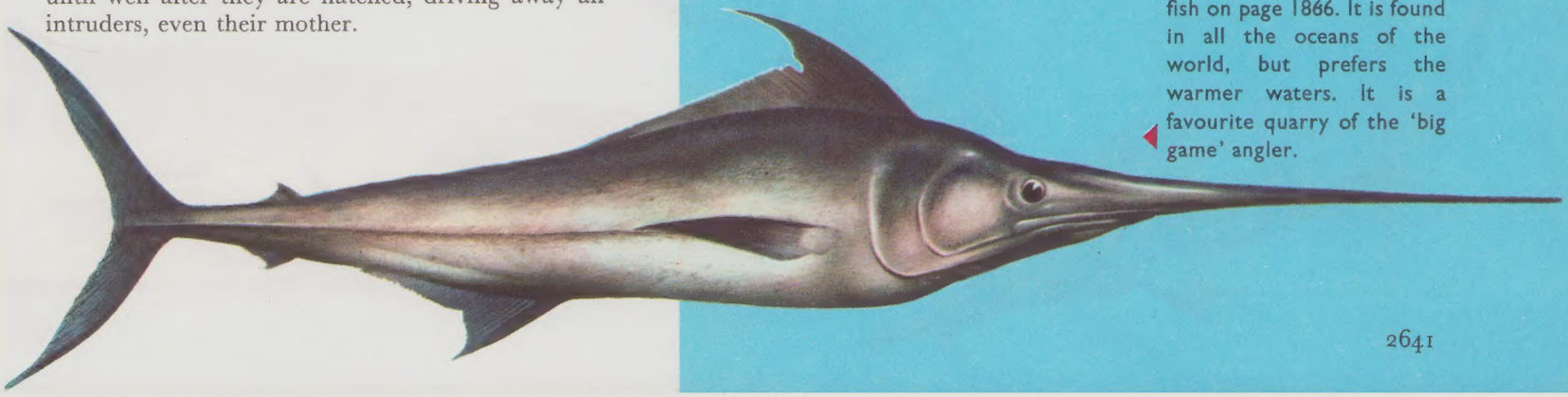
Tunny (*Thunnus thynnus*). One of the largest of the Perciformes (see page 260).

Mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*). A small relative of the tunny and a fish of some economic importance. Found in British waters in the summer.

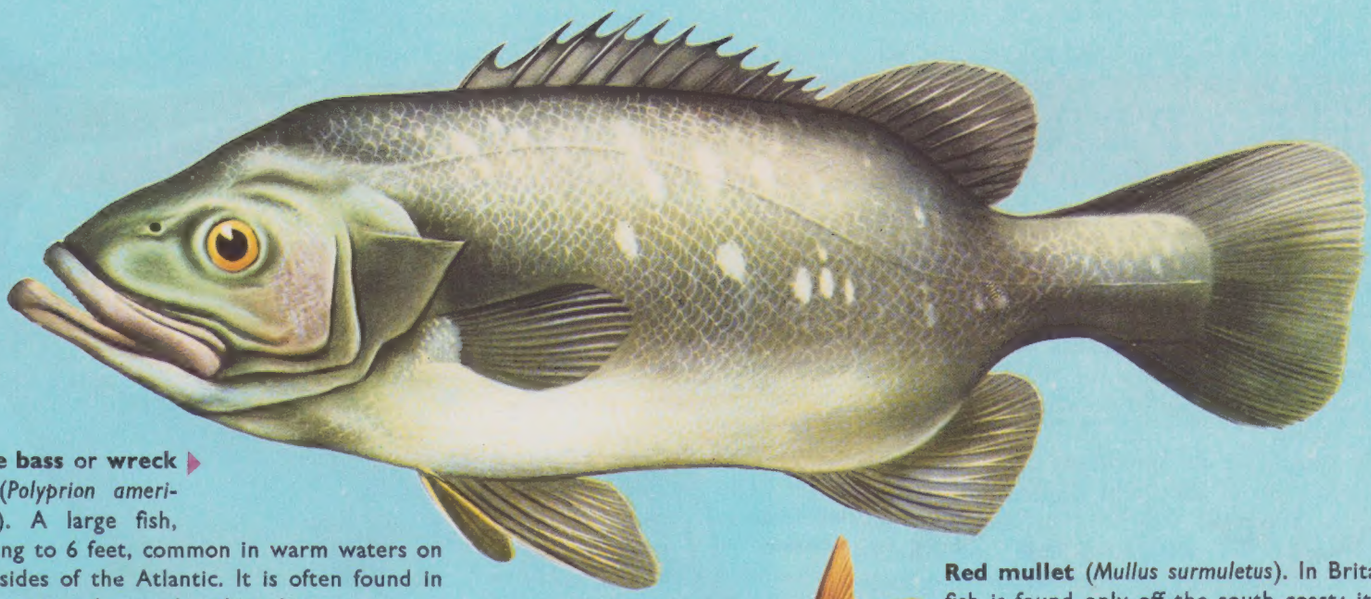


Perch (*Perca fluviatilis*). A common European fresh-water fish, and one of the few that is good to eat.

Dentex (*Dentex dentex*). This is one of the sea breams and is a warm-water fish, common in the Mediterranean and tropical Atlantic.



Swordfish (*Xiphias gladius*). We have already given a full account of this magnificent fish on page 1866. It is found in all the oceans of the world, but prefers the warmer waters. It is a favourite quarry of the 'big game' angler.

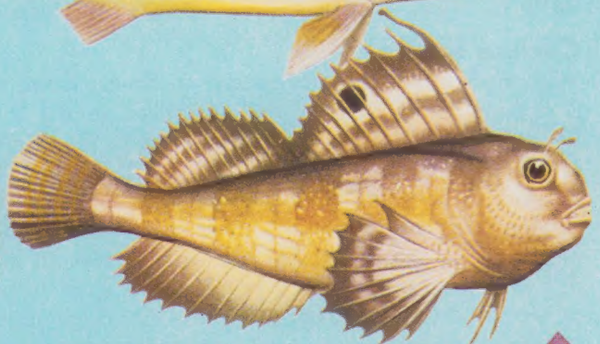


Stone bass or **wreck fish** (*Polyprion americanus*). A large fish, growing to 6 feet, common in warm waters on both sides of the Atlantic. It is often found in numbers in and around sunken ships.

Red mullet (*Mullus surmuletus*). In Britain this fish is found only off the south coast; it is one of the best of all fishes to eat.

Striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*). This is a warm-water fish, closely allied to the grey mullet (*Mugil chelo*) which is common in Britain in the tidal parts of rivers.

Gilthead (*Sparus auratus*). The gilthead is a handsome fish belonging to the Family Sparidae or sea breams. It is delicious to eat.

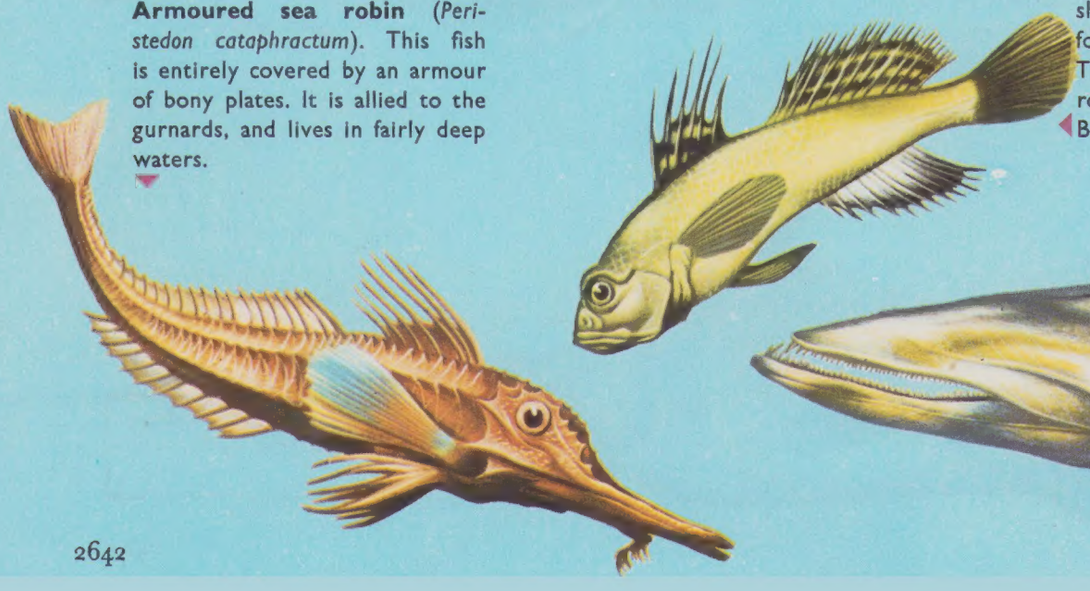


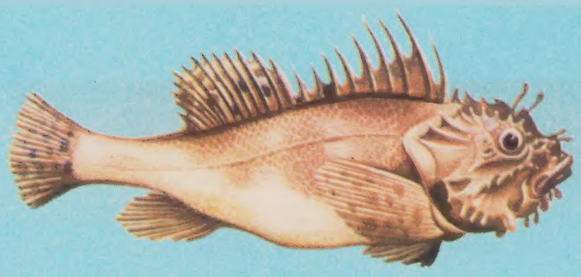
Black umber (*Umbrina cirrosa*). This is one of the Sciaenidae or 'croakers', so called because it makes a loud noise which can easily be heard by underwater swimmers. It is of some economic importance in the Mediterranean, but is not found in British waters.

Black goby (*Gobius niger*). Most gobies are little fishes that live close in to the shore, and are often found in rock pools. This one is found all round the coast of Britain.

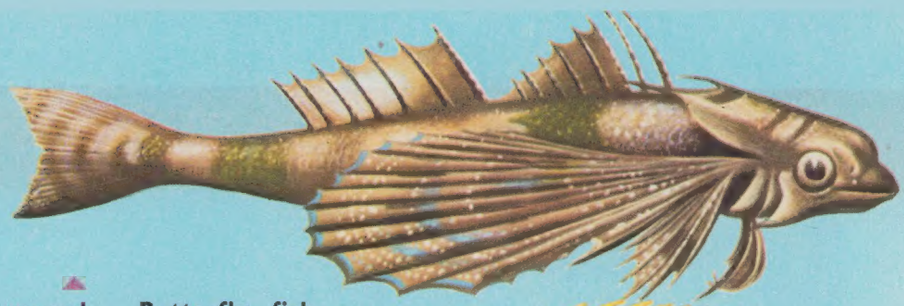
Butterfly blenny (*Blennius ocellaris*). The blennies are also coastal fishes; they have very small scales, or none at all, and their skin is slimy. This is one of the prettiest.

Armoured sea robin (*Peristedon cataphractum*). This fish is entirely covered by an armour of bony plates. It is allied to the gurnards, and lives in fairly deep waters.





Orange scorpion fish (*Scorpaena scrofa*). Scorpion fishes are found in warm waters, and have sharp and often poisonous spines.

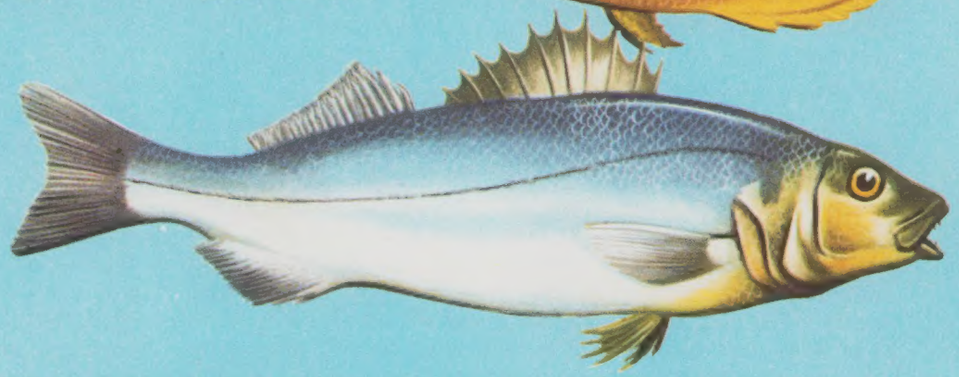


Flying gurnard (*Dactylopterus volitans*). This fish has the pectoral fins much enlarged, like those of the true flying fishes, but there is some doubt as to whether it uses them for gliding through the air.

Butterfly fish (*Chaetodon lunula*). Many different kinds of butterfly fishes are found swimming over the tropical coral reefs. They are very beautiful and display a great variety of colour and form.

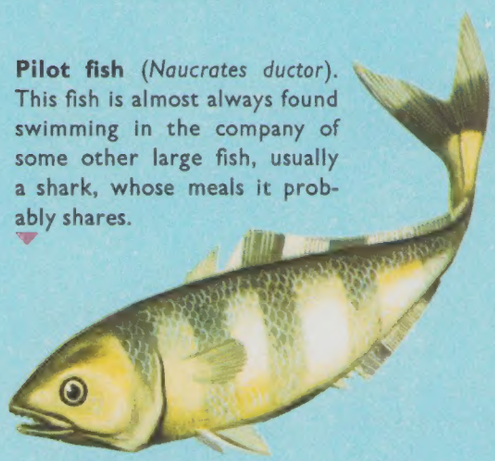
Archer fish (*Toxotes jaculator*). We have already described how strangely this fish hunts its prey.

Lion fish (*Pterois volitans*). A kind of tropical scorpion fish with very poisonous spines.



Bass (*Morone labrax*). Bass often come in close to the shore, and give good sport to anglers. Large ones weigh as much as 20 pounds, and they are good to eat.

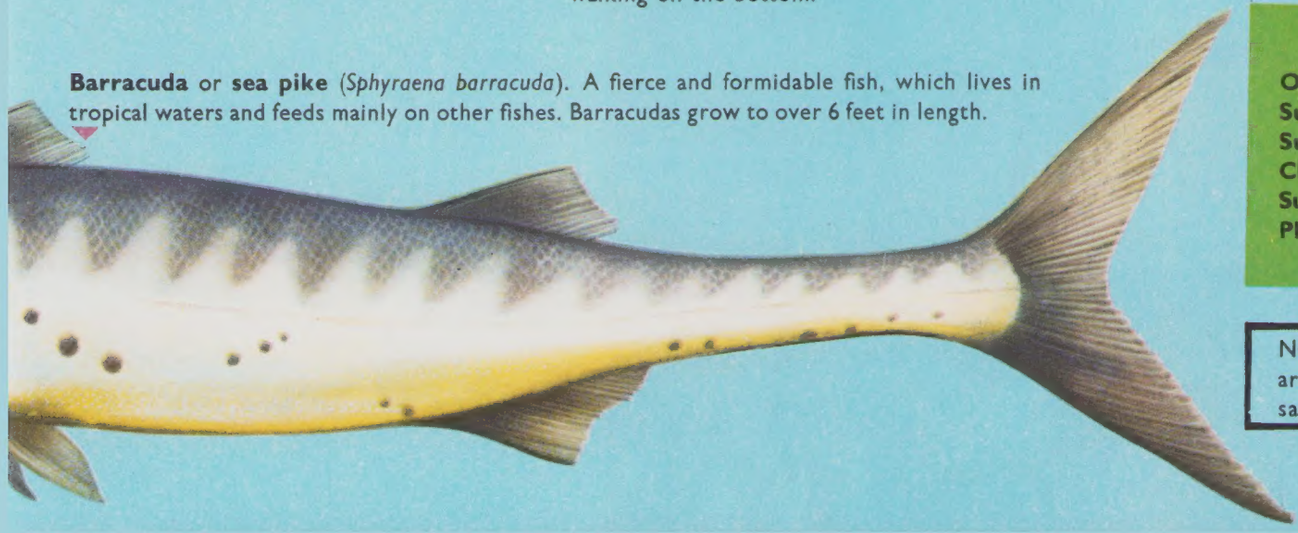
Pilot fish (*Naucrates ductor*). This fish is almost always found swimming in the company of some other large fish, usually a shark, whose meals it probably shares.



Greater weever (*Trachinus draco*). The weevers have poisonous spines in the dorsal fins, and a wound from them causes terrible pain. This species is quite common around British shores.

Tub-fish or **gurnard** (*Trigla lucerna*). The head is armed with bony plates; the front three pectoral rays are separate, and are used for walking on the bottom.

Barracuda or **sea pike** (*Sphyraena barracuda*). A fierce and formidable fish, which lives in tropical waters and feeds mainly on other fishes. Barracudas grow to over 6 feet in length.



CLASSIFICATION

Order	Perciformes
Superorder	Teleostei
Subclass	Actinopterygii
Class	Osteichthyes
Subphylum	Vertebrata
Phylum	Chordata

NOTE. The illustrations are not all drawn to the same scale.

THE GREAT DEPRESSION

THE 1920s was a decade of confidence. People had confidence in their governments, their diplomatists, and particularly in their businessmen. In America financiers were regarded as demi-gods. They were asked their views on philosophy, life, and religion; and their opinions were treated as those of oracles. At the same time, the world was at peace. The League of Nations seemed to have brought 'peace in our time'. The celebrated Kellogg-Briand pact (1928) 'outlawed' war, and men looked forward to a 'brave new world' – a world 'fit for heroes to live in'.

Yet suddenly everything changed. One black day, 29th October 1929, the bottom dropped out of the American stock market. The 'Wall Street crash', as it came to be known, ruined many thousands of investors. Confidence was gone in a matter of hours, and people rushed to sell. This crash had repercussions which were to travel all over the world. It ushered in a harsher, severer age of unemployment; of hunger marches; of raised tariff barriers; of international tension. It ushered in the Great Depression.

Causes of the slump

The origin of the misery of the terrible decade of the 1930s – the 'Devil's Decade' as it was called – can be found in the First World War. In fact, Britain never recovered from that war, and between 1920 and 1940 she was in an almost constant state of economic depression. Her unemployment rate was constantly high, and, underlying the optimism which greeted the years following the Great War, the harsh reality of poverty was never far from the surface. When it came, the 'Devil's Decade' was as severe in Britain as most countries, but its contrast with the years before was not quite so marked.

The root of Britain's difficulties lay in the stagnation in trade. Britain's economic life depended on her exports, yet these fell off rapidly during the war, and never fully recovered. This was partly because prices of *primary products* fell, so that primary producing countries were economically poor and unable to buy much from abroad. Primary products, such as food and raw materials, were produced in the countries of the British Empire, with which Britain carried on much of her trade. Then, too, certain heavy industries like iron and steel, which had flourished in the war, found themselves producing too much. This meant that prices fell and the industries became depressed. In addition, other countries such as Japan and America had built up industries of their own, and not only did they cease to buy from Britain, but successfully competed with her in the shrunken markets of the post-war era.

Because certain industries were particularly depressed, the post-war slump hit badly those areas in which they were concentrated. Thus in South Wales and Tyneside the coal industry stagnated; in Lancashire there was a terrible slump in the textile industry; and in Clydeside the ship-building industry was brought almost to a standstill.

The depression deepens

Apart from these economic difficulties, Europe was also in the grip of a financial dilemma which was shortly to have catastrophic results. Europe's economy was artificially bolstered by money which poured in from America by way of loans and investments, particularly to Germany and Austria. These brought prosperity not only to these countries, but also to other European countries with whom they traded, or to whom they paid war-time 'reparations' (payments for war damage). But around 1928 a fantastic boom on the American Stock Exchange led to colossal investment on Wall Street (the home of the American Stock Market). American funds were withdrawn to invest at home, and gold flowed out of Europe and into America. Speculation in America increased, and millions were made overnight. Many investors bought stock having only one-tenth of its price, and borrowed the rest. Then came the crash. People realised that the prices of the shares were infinitely higher than their real value. They lost confidence; investors who had borrowed money in order to invest ruined not only themselves but their creditors. There was a wave of suicides, and the world of American business crumbled. Investment, loans abroad, and buying stopped. President Hoover (who had been elected on the slogan 'a chicken on every table, two cars in every garage') raised tariff barriers to protect home manufactures; this, of course, hit other countries. America's economic recovery began with the 'New Deal' of her next President, Franklin D. Roosevelt. But it is probably true to say that the sense of complete confidence and sureness in big businessmen and their methods disappeared forever.

Panic in Britain

The withdrawal of American money and the collapse of her buying power had grave effects all over Europe. But in Britain the government was not at first unduly alarmed. There, a Labour Government had come to power on 10th May 1929, little realising that it was soon to have on its hands the worst economic crisis in British history. In November 1929 the unemployment figure was 1,326,000. This was bad, but little worse than it had been throughout the 1920s. In January it had reached 1,520,000. This was not unexpected. The government confidently looked forward to the usual decline in unemployment figures as spring and summer approached. In April 1,761,000 were unemployed. Now the Prime Minister, Ramsay MacDonald, was seriously worried. What was going

◀ *The Jarrow unemployed on the march*, 1936

Hunger marchers share a meal

wrong? Why weren't the figures improving? In July over 2 million were unemployed; by December 2½ million. The fact was that neither the Labour Government nor virtually anyone else understood what was happening, and how the persistent British depression had merged with the world-wide financial slump which had come from the Wall Street crash. By the following summer nearly 3 million were unemployed, a figure which remained for the next four years.

At the same time the slump in world buying power affected trade considerably. In 1929 the value of British exports was £839 million; in 1930 £666 million; in 1931 £461 million.

The government did its best. In January 1930 the Economic Advisory Council was set up but achieved little. In June 1930 Ramsay MacDonald declared that he himself would assume responsibility for unemployment policies. Then, on 31st July 1931, was published the May Report on Economics. This announced that the economic crisis was acute and that reserves of money were totally inadequate.

This report began yet another wave of panic. People rushed to cash their assets while reserves lasted; foreign investment was withdrawn on a huge scale; the Bank of England lost gold at a rate of £2½ million a day. On 23rd August the Labour Government fell, and the King asked Ramsay MacDonald to become the leader of a new National Government.

Continued failure

The National Government did no better than its predecessor. Gold drained from the Bank of England. On 16th September £5 million of gold was withdrawn. On the 17th £10 million worth; on the 18th £18 million. Reserves were practically exhausted, and Britain virtually bankrupt. On 21st September the government took the nation off the gold standard (see page 2563). A general election in October was fought largely on the issue of free trade. The National Government was returned, and, in November 1931, set up tariff barriers to protect her industries. Thus two great fundamentals of British economics were finally abandoned – free trade and the gold standard.

The effects of the slump

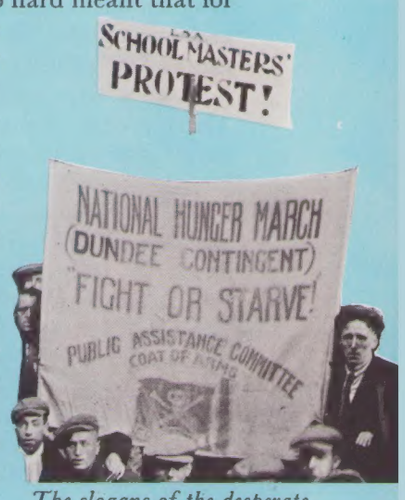
The depression reached every sector of the community. Groups of workers in bare feet or patched clothing, standing idle on the pavements, became a familiar sight. Unemployment relief was distributed on an unprecedented scale, but it was not enough to meet the requirements of the ordinary citizen; particularly in South Wales and the industrial north, where whole communities were out of work. A new generation, unaccustomed to steady employment, began to grow up. These people developed their own philosophy of life: 'They abandoned necessities and concentrated on luxuries.' The cinema and football 'gates' flourished as never before or since. With so little to spend and so little to do, people tried to ease their gloom by indulging themselves with what little they could afford. Yet, at the same time, others became violent. In Britain, Fascists and Communists brawled in the streets, and long 'hunger marches' converged on London from the worst-hit areas. The political situation was never so desperate as in Germany, nor was the economic situation so grave as in parts of America, yet those who lived through the 1930s are not likely ever to forget the poverty and misery which was almost universally felt. Statistics at the height of the crisis are truly staggering. At Palmer's shipyards in Jarrow no fewer than 72·9 per cent of insured workers were unemployed in September 1933. Figures from Merthyr in Wales were even worse, while in the iron and steel industry production fell from 9·6 million tons in 1929 to 5·2 million tons in 1931.

The worst is over

In 1936, however, iron and steel production was back to 11·8 million tons, and the percentage of unemployed in this industry fell from 47·7 per cent in June 1932 to 10·7 per cent in June 1937.

In fact, by 1935 the situation was improving. Why, it is difficult to say. There is a natural tendency for a 'slump' to be followed by a 'boom', and, although Britain remained depressed right up until the outbreak of the Second World War, the economic situation got steadily better throughout the second half of the 1930s. Growth in the armaments industry stimulated this progress here, as it was to do on a far greater scale in Germany. Meanwhile, the Unemployment Assistance Board (1934) did something to alleviate the worst of the distress. Another reason for the improvement was that in the midst of the depression, certain people had never been so well off. The drastic fall in prices which hit producers so hard meant that for those in work the 1930s were years of plenty: for their money went further than ever before. Labour was so cheap that many people in ordinary jobs could afford servants. They were gradually able to put their money back into the community, and so stimulate recovery through such industries as building. Housing 'boomed' in the years before the Second World War.

Yet the lessons of those years are indelibly written into history; and the sense of insecurity, the political and economic chaos which echoed throughout the world, had much to do with the rise of Nazism, the Second World War, and the redrawing of the world map as we know it today.



The slogans of the desperate

WAGNER

WAGNER is either hated or worshipped. He is hated as an arrogant, self-opinionated egoist; as Hitler's favourite composer; as a racialist who idealised the German race and loathed 'inferior' peoples; as the writer of monumentally long, loud operas whose mystical themes almost amount to 'Germanic' propaganda. He is worshipped as a patriot, dedicated to his country's artistic regeneration; as a composer of the most compelling and powerful romantic music; as the creator of music-drama in which theme, words, and music are inseparably united. Every year thousands make their pilgrimage to Bayreuth to attend the Wagner Festival – the annual memorial to this most controversial of composers.

A stormy career

Wilhelm Richard Wagner was born in Leipzig on 22nd May 1813. Shortly afterwards his father died; his mother married again, to an actor, Ludwig Geyer, and they moved to Dresden, where they lived until Geyer's death. At school Wagner's imagination was roused by the Greek epics, Shakespeare, and Goethe, which he read voraciously. His musical awakening came when he heard Weber's opera *Der Freischütz*, which made an impact on him and had a great influence on his early works.

In 1828 Wagner went to Leipzig, where he became familiar with the work of Beethoven. He became determined to compose, and after studying a library book, spent six months learning composition and theory – the only formal training he had.

Wagner now took a series of jobs as conductor at small opera houses, meanwhile writing a few unsuccessful operas, and in 1836 he married his first wife, Minna. Their marriage was not a happy one. Wagner was incredibly bad about money, and spent all his life in debt; he was continually unfaithful to Minna.

In 1839 they made their way to Paris. There Wagner scraped a living as a hack writer and a musical copyist. Meanwhile, he was finishing the *libretto* (words) and music of the opera *Rienzi*, and writing *Der Fliegende Holländer* (*The Flying Dutchman*). In 1842 *Rienzi* was accepted for production in Dresden. Back to Germany went the hopeful Wagners, and *Rienzi* – though lasting five hours – was an immediate success. But it was the only one Wagner achieved for many years. His salary as Kapellmeister was absorbed by debts, and *Der Fliegende Holländer*, produced in 1843, was a failure since Wagner's departure from operatic traditions angered the audience. His next opera, *Tannhäuser* (1845), also failed, and no one would produce his *Lohengrin*. Wagner became embroiled in revolutionary politics. After the unsuccessful revolution in Dresden in 1849, and with a warrant out for his arrest, he fled to Weimar (where the composer Liszt, his friend and champion, was rehearsing *Tannhäuser*); from there he went to Switzerland.

Wagner was now forbidden entry to Germany, and turned to writing – for the time being composing was abandoned. For inspiration he turned to the Norse sagas, and wrote the poem later to be used in his four operas (*Das Rheingold*, *Die Walküre*, *Siegfried*, and *Götterdämmerung*) which made up the cycle, *Der Ring des Nibelungen* (*The Ring of the Nibelung*). Meanwhile, he produced a series of pamphlets which set out his ideas of what opera – or, as he preferred to call it, music-drama – should be. In 1853 he started to write the music for the *Ring*, but laid it aside in 1857 to write *Tristan und Isolde*. Public recognition still eluded him, despite Liszt's efforts. *Tannhäuser* was withdrawn after three performances in Paris, and *Tristan* was abandoned after 57 rehearsals in Vienna. Wagner's wife left him, his debts increased, and by 1864 he seemed beaten.

A caricature of Wagner

But at this lowest ebb the tide turned. The young King Ludwig of Bavaria paid the worst of his debts, and gave him a house in Munich and a generous pension. Wagner was now able to produce his operas, and *Die Meistersinger von Nürnberg* (1868) was an overwhelming success. But scandal forced him to leave Munich, with his conductor's wife Cosima (Liszt's daughter), whom he later married. They were idyllically happy, and it was for her that he composed the beautiful *Siegfried Idylle*, by far his loveliest short orchestral work.

By now the *Ring* cycle was nearing completion, and Wagner determined to build a theatre in which to stage it. He worked frantically to raise money for it, and in August 1876 the Bayreuth Festspielhaus was opened with the first performance of the *Ring*. The theatre was crowded with royalty, critics, and composers including Tchaikovsky, Liszt, and Saint-Saens. Wagner was acclaimed. But financial difficulties still beset him, and his health was now failing. There was a deficit on the Festspielhaus, and Wagner's love of luxury – almost a mania – led him into appalling personal debt. Ludwig helped again; and in 1882 a second Bayreuth festival became possible. In July Wagner's last opera, *Parsifal*, was performed, and seven months later, in February 1883, the composer died.

Wagner firmly believed that 'music-dramas' should be unified structures, with words and music of almost equal importance. He wrote all his own words, and most of his operas are based on legends and Norse mythology. He wanted to create a new, German tradition of opera; and he thought that the audience should approach an opera in an almost religious spirit.

To achieve the mystical effect he strove after, Wagner not only used revolutionary harmonies and orchestration, but developed the *Leitmotif* – a theme which was the 'signature tune' of a character, an emotion, or an object, and which was introduced into the music at any mention of them. Unlike earlier composers, he did not break up his works into recitatives, choruses, and arias, but produced a continuous flow of music in which the orchestra never just accompanies the soloists, but amplifies the feelings they express, helping to give the unity to the whole structure which was his ideal.

OLIVER CROMWELL AND THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

THE history of the English monarchy has one gap – a period when a king died, passions ruled, and a strong man bent the nation to his will. That man was Oliver Cromwell.

Oliver Cromwell was born the son of a modest landowner on 25th April 1599 at Huntingdon. He was educated at Huntingdon free school and at Cambridge University. As would be expected of a local squire, he took an active interest in local affairs, and became well known in his neighbourhood. In 1628 he was elected M P for Cambridge, and also sat in that Parliament which passed the Petition of Right in 1629. He made only one recorded speech in 1628, attacking Bishop Neile for 'popery'. In fact, little is known of his political views in either the 1620s or 1630s, but we can guess that he took a keen interest in the momentous events which were shortly to bring the nation into the grips of civil war. And we can also guess which side the 'Puritan farmer from Huntingdon' favoured in the unfolding drama in which the King and Commons battled for political supremacy.

King versus Commons

There had been signs of approaching conflict even in the reign of Elizabeth, when a devout group of M Ps, known as the 'Puritan choir' (because of their vociferousness) attacked the Queen's Government. They attacked it on two fronts. First, they opposed the Established Church, wishing to do away with bishops and 'popish' ceremonial. Secondly, they wanted to limit the authority of the Queen and extend that of the Commons, by giving the latter power to discuss affairs which were traditionally the sole business of the sovereign. Such affair included the Church and foreign policy and indeed, much to Elizabeth's annoyance, such personal affairs as the way she gave 'patents of monopoly' to her courtiers.

Prosperous Puritans

Why the Puritan religion went hand in hand with a desire to reform the constitution has never been properly explained. Perhaps Puritans felt that only by increasing the powers of the Commons (where they had influence) could they pass legislation favouring their faith. Perhaps political reformers in this period became generally 'anti-establishment', including the Established Church, and thus became Puritan. Anyway, one of the basic factors in early 17th-century politics is the Puritan opposition to the Crown. A second basic factor is that some, at least, of the Puritans were substantial merchants and professional men. They were considerably richer than the traditional courtier classes who controlled the Government together with the sovereign. The 'new rich' ('rising gentry' as they are called) resented their exclusion; after all, they paid the taxes, and in the end they were prepared to fight for their demands.

Elizabeth had been wise and conciliatory. Matters grew rapidly worse under her less successful successor, James I, and reached crisis point under Charles I. Charles simply added fuel to the flames. He exercised his prerogative fully, and got the judges to back him up; he conducted an unpopular foreign policy; he imposed arbitrary taxation (taxes taken without parliamentary consent) such as 'Ship Money' and a 'Forced Loan'; in fact, he did not even call a Parliament between 1629

Cromwell leading a cavalry charge at the battle of Marston Moor, July 1644

and 1640; and he allowed his High Church Archbishop of Canterbury, William Laud (see page 2304), to impose 'popish' ceremonial. But perhaps the most disastrous thing to happen to Charles in the 1630s was not the result of his actions – for it was around 1638 that Oliver Cromwell 'saw the light'. He wrote that formerly he had 'Lived in and loved darkness and hated the light. I was a chief, the chief of sinners . . . yet God had mercy on me. . . . Pray for me that he who hath begun a good work would perfect it to the day of Christ.' With Cromwell's discovery of his mission to impose the Will of God, a superb organiser, a brilliant soldier, and an inspiring leader was ranged against the King. Cromwell's genius was to win the Civil War for Parliament; his iron resolution to bring Charles to the block.

Charles was forced to summon his 'Short Parliament' in 1640, because he needed money to pay for the Scottish war. This had broken out when he had tried to impose the English Prayer Book on Scotland. Parliament granted no money, and merely attacked the King and his ministers. Charles dissolved it, but had to call another. The 'Long Parliament', which assembled early in 1641, revolutionised the English constitution. The King was now bankrupt and helpless. A Triennial Act had already been passed (compelling him to summon Parliament every three years). Now he could do nothing as his Prerogative Courts were abolished, his rights to Ship Money and unparliamentary taxation done away with, his chief minister (Strafford) executed, and his Archbishop sent to the Tower. By now Cromwell had become famous as a powerful and determined member of the Long Parliament. So deeply involved in the anti-Royalist measures was he, that, when Parliament passed the Grand Remonstrance (criticising the King) by a majority of only 11, he said that if the Remonstrance had been rejected he 'would have sold all he had and never seen England more'.

But the King was not quite finished. He tried to arrest five leading members of the Commons (not including Cromwell), but found on his arrival that 'the birds had flown'. Then Parliament demanded that he surrender his powers over the army. Charles refused, and at last prepared to stand and fight. On 22nd August 1642 he raised his standard at Nottingham.

At once Cromwell was in the thick of the fight. He took part in the inconclusive battle of Edgehill, and was ordered to gather a regiment in East Anglia. He picked his recruits carefully – men of the same religious ideals as himself. They were Puritan, yes, but a special type of Puritan. Scottish Puritanism, shared by many Englishmen, was *Presbyterian* and wanted a system of church government similar to that which Calvin had once set up in Geneva. Cromwell and the *Independents* wanted no church government at all, but thought that each congregation should govern itself. Parliament was predominantly Presbyterian – a difficulty Cromwell was later to have to face.

The Civil War

The opening campaigns were at least as favourable to the Royalists as to the Parliamentarians. Apart from Cromwell, the Parliamentarians had few outstanding leaders. The commander-in-chief, the Earl of Essex, was over-cautious, while the Earl of Manchester, commander-in-chief after 1644, did not get on well with Cromwell. King Charles's dashing commander, Prince Rupert, more than held his own, despite the fact that Cromwell's 'Ironsides', recruited in East Anglia, were in the field by the spring of 1643. These men from the Fens, devoutly religious and rejoicing in the harsh discipline of Cromwell, were ultimately to prove a decisive factor in the war.

Oliver Cromwell – England's one dictator

Early in 1644 the English and the Scots came to terms, and a Committee of Both Kingdoms was set up to conduct the Civil War. English and Scottish armies were to fight against King Charles under the command of the Earl of Manchester with Cromwell as his deputy. On 2nd July Cromwell and the Earl of Manchester marched north, and at Marston Moor they inflicted a crushing defeat on Prince Rupert, a victory due largely to a thrilling cavalry manœuvre by Cromwell. This victory was not followed up, and Cromwell publicly criticised the Earl of Manchester. This led to extensive arguments in Parliament between the Commons (supporting Cromwell) and the Lords (supporting Manchester). Eventually, a Self Denying Ordinance was proposed by which all the commanders should lay down their commissions, and a New Model Army be created out of the existing armies. All the commanders did lay down their commissions – except Cromwell. Instead, he was sent towards Oxford to prevent a junction between Charles's army and Prince Rupert's. The New Model Army was placed under the command of Lord Fairfax, and the vacant post of Lieutenant-General was filled by Oliver Cromwell. With this powerful, centralised army against him, Charles's days were numbered. On 14th July 1645 the King's forces were routed in the most decisive battle of the whole war – Naseby. Again Cromwell's cavalry carried the day. Further defeats for the King followed, and he surrendered himself to the Scots, who promptly handed him over to the Parliamentarians.

The victors divided

With the King a prisoner, disputes broke out among the victorious Parliamentarians. Various proposals were submitted to the King. Parliament submitted the *Propositions of Newcastle*, Ireton (Cromwell's son-in-law) the *Heads of the Proposals*, and the 'Agitators' (a group of 'communists' from the lower ranks of the army) submitted the *Agreement of the People*. Meanwhile, the Scottish Presbyterians had become distrustful of Cromwell's Independents, and encouraged the King to escape. In November 1647 he did so, and in dealing with this, the Second Civil War, Cromwell rose to his greatest heights as a general. He marched rapidly into Wales, subdued a revolt there, and then marched north to defeat the Scots and their English Royalist allies decisively at Preston. Cromwell had now decided that the King was 'an accursed thing', and must be executed. Accordingly, the Presbyterians in the House of Commons were 'purged' in December 1648, which left it predominantly filled with men amenable to Cromwell. The King was quickly captured, and, after a trial in which Cromwell's own efforts obtained enough signatures to warrant the death penalty, Charles was executed on 30th January 1649.

The English Commonwealth

England was declared a Commonwealth, and a *Council of State* was set up to govern, together with the group of M Ps (the 'Rump') which was left in Parliament. At once trouble flared up in the army where 'Levellers' (early communists) wanted to abolish the authority of both Parliament and their army leaders. Cromwell ruthlessly dealt with such revolts, and went to Ireland, where he massacred Royalist garrisons at Drogheda and Wexford, with ferocity which has scarcely been equalled. By now Charles I's son had made concessions to Presbyterianism, and been recognised as Charles II by the Scots. So Cromwell prepared to march on Scotland. Lord Fairfax, who had never supported the execution of the King, would not fight the Scots whose Presbyterian faith he shared. And so Cromwell became commander-in-chief and easily the most powerful man in the land. On 3rd September 1650 the Scots were shattered at Dunbar. A year later Cromwell trapped them into marching south and won a decisive victory at Worcester on 3rd September 1651.

Cromwell's great problem was that of governing a nation whose inhabitants were rapidly becoming frightened of military rule, and who were almost all opposed to the Independency of the army. At first a war with the Dutch (which broke out in 1652) distracted both him, the army, and the Rump from constitutional matters. But the question of establishing an effective government could not be delayed for ever. Cromwell was furious with the Rump for neither dissolving itself nor giving him the powers he wanted; so he gathered a group of soldiers, and dissolved it by force in the spring of 1653.

Now followed a series of almost pathetic constitutional experiments. The first, established on the advice of General Harrison, was the *Assembly of Saints* (known as Barebone's Parliament after one of its members). This proved so foolish and impracticable that it was replaced by the *Instrument of Government* on the advice of Major Lambert. This made Cromwell Lord Protector of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and made the Council of State responsible for executive matters.

Cromwell's Protectorate brought peace with the Dutch on 5th April 1654. But, like King Charles, Cromwell had to have money; and so he needed Parliament. Yet Parliament (summoned in October 1654) seemed concerned only with criticising his policies, and he dissolved it in January 1655. Another experiment was tried by which he divided the country up between 11 Major-Generals. But war had now broken out with Spain, so Parliament had to be called to raise money. He managed to exclude about a hundred opponents from this Parliament by making use of the clause restricting membership to men of 'known integrity, fearing God, and of good conversation'. This Parliament offered Cromwell the crown, and early in 1657 he overthrew the Major-Generals and seriously contemplated accepting. But in May, under pressure from the army leaders, he rejected the offer and set up a new constitution, *The Humble Petition and Advice*. By this the Protector was allowed to nominate his successor, select his own second chamber (instead of the old House of Lords), and given the title 'His Highness'. If he was not called King, Cromwell was indeed an uncrowned monarch.

Cromwell's last Parliament met on 20th January 1658. It attacked him bitterly for his unparliamentary taxation, and for infringements of the liberties of his subjects. How ironical it was, and how he must have sympathised with the late Charles I, as he dissolved Parliament with the words 'Let God judge between you and me'. But Cromwell was ageing rapidly under the strain, and in the autumn of 1658, aged 59, he died.

What were the achievements of the Protectorate? Of long-term constitutional achievements there were, of course, none. The Restoration (see page 2430) restored King Charles and Parliament much as they had been before the Civil War. Yet Cromwell's rule will be remembered as a time when English armies were respected abroad as never since the Middle Ages. Wars against the Dutch and against Spain were waged with outstanding success, while Jamaica and Dunkirk were added to the British Empire. Finally, the life of a great man is never wasted, for his memory is itself something to be cherished. Cromwell was a good husband and father, a superb soldier, a powerful leader of men, and a wonderful idealist.

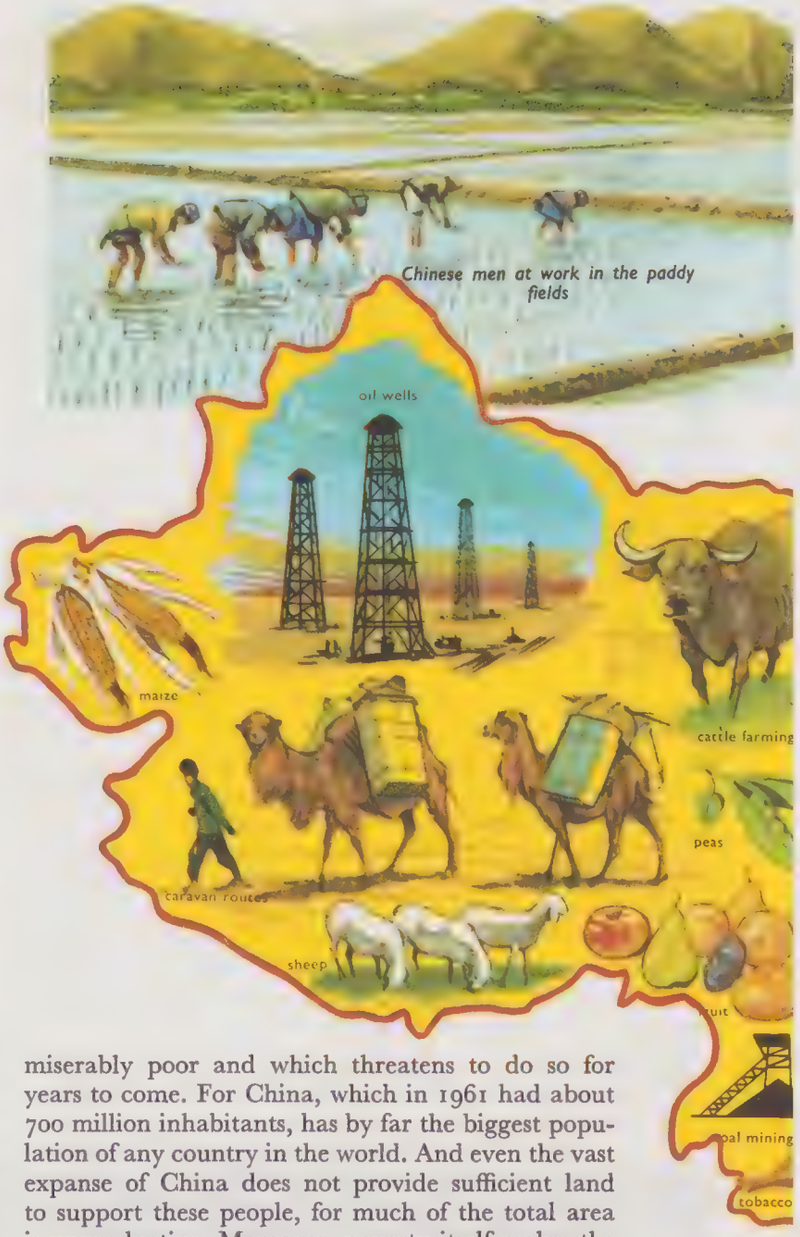
The 'uncrowned King' remains uncrowned; Cromwell rejects Parliament's offer of kingship under pressure from the army

CHINA: economy

THE present rapid development of the Chinese economy may well prove one of the most significant events of the 20th century. The Communists, who seized power in 1949, inherited a backward, poverty-stricken country, with little heavy industry, and with a large, ignorant, and under-fed population. Despite tremendous obstacles, the new government has set itself the task of building up a thriving and prosperous economy, which might well make China the most powerful nation in the world. Only history will tell whether China's optimism is justified.

As the state owns all means of production such as land, factories, shops, and transport, the economic development of the country is in the hands of the Peking Government. And the government is trying to achieve the hoped-for economic transformation through planning. In other words, targets for the various branches of industry, agriculture, and commerce are set, and the necessary resources, such as raw materials and capital, allotted. Of course, this method has the advantage that the government can expand those parts of the economy which it considers crucial at the expense of others, but it has the disadvantage that the personal freedom of people to produce what and how much they want is stifled.

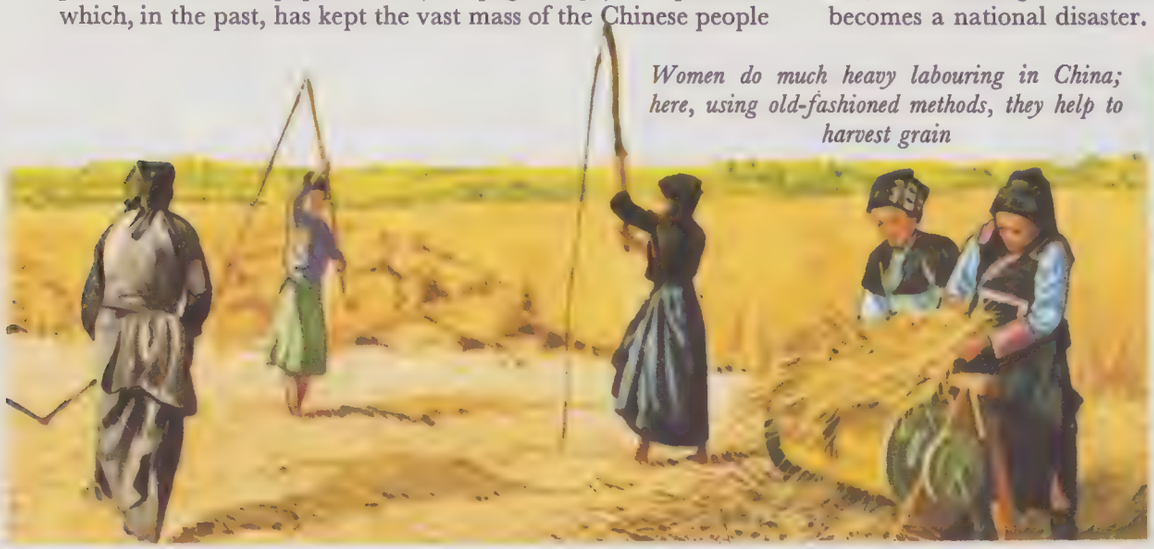
In 1958 the government made an all-out effort to revolutionise the Chinese economy so drastically and so quickly that success would have made even Russia's dramatic progress look lethargic. But it was not to be. By 1961 it was clear that the 'Great Leap Forward', as the Chinese called it, had miscarried, and instead the economy had landed flat on its face.



China's difficulties

Failure was the product of a number of causes, all of which help to show the difficulties faced by the government. The planners seriously overestimated the economic capacity of industry, and, above all, of agriculture. Disastrous harvest failures in 1960 and 1961, due to drought, floods, typhoons, and crop diseases, meant starvation and misery, and brought about the expenditure of precious gold reserves on imports of foodstuffs from capitalist countries such as Canada, Australia, France, and West Germany. Ideological squabbles with the Soviet Union led to the withdrawal of valuable technical and financial assistance from China. Finally, there is the problem of over-population (see page 2232) – a problem which, in the past, has kept the vast mass of the Chinese people miserably poor and which threatens to do so for years to come. For China, which in 1961 had about 700 million inhabitants, has by far the biggest population of any country in the world. And even the vast expanse of China does not provide sufficient land to support these people, for much of the total area is unproductive. Moreover, poverty itself makes the adoption of new techniques and equipment difficult, and this causes that poverty to continue.

And so, of this enormous population, about 85 per cent consists of peasants, ekeing out a meagre subsistence from the soil, and creating a situation where every major crop failure becomes a national disaster.



Women do much heavy labouring in China; here, using old-fashioned methods, they help to harvest grain

Population: between 700 and 800 million.

Main towns (1961 figures):

Peking (capital)	5·4 m
Shanghai	6·9 m
Tientsin	3·2 m

Railways: 31,193 km open by 1958 (20,800 miles).

Currency: 1 yuan = 10 chiao = 100 fen.

Main exports: animals, animal products including eggs, oils, textile fibres including silk, tea, tobacco.

Main imports: raw cotton, motor vehicles, chemical products, books and paper, metals, rice and cereals.

Economic map of China

Industry

'There are also many mulberry trees, from the leaves of which the inhabitants obtain much silk.' So wrote Marco Polo, the famous 13th-century explorer, and it is as true today as it was then. China is the largest producer of silk in the world, and the ancient industries producing fine-quality silken goods typify the native skill and craftsmanship which are associated with the artistic Chinese people.

But the development of industries such as iron and steel; those associated with railway, bridge, and dam construction; with electricity generating, heavy engineering, large chemical plants like that at Kirin in north-east China – these are at the root of the present rapid pace of China's economic growth.

More traditional industries such as textile manufacture and food processing are also developing rapidly. Many cotton and woollen factories have been established in Shanghai, Canton, and other places, while sugar refineries, flour mills, and rice mills are continually increasing in both size of plant and number of establishments.

Mineral resources

Vast distances and difficult terrain have hindered the development of China's natural resources, although improved communications and the establishment of new industrial centres have brought about a great expansion recently.

Coal exists in enormous quantities, above all in Manchuria and the provinces of Shansi, Hapei, and Shantung. In the latter two regions iron ore is abundant, and there are great steel-works at Anshan and Wuhan.

Probably over 300 million tons of coal are produced annually, and not only coal and iron, but gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, tungsten, mercury, antimony, and tin are all mined extensively in western China. Oil production and refining are also rapidly being developed.

China's industrial resources

Agriculture

By the end of 1958 the Chinese peasants had been organised into about 26,000 communal farms called 'Peoples' Communes'. Rice is the basic diet of the population, and is grown wherever climate and soil permit. This is mainly in the south of China, where sugar cane, too, is widely cultivated.

The relative scarcity of agricultural land due to the vast deserts, mountainous regions, and forests which provide a vast timber industry, can be seen from the fact that only about 200,000 square miles out of a total of over $3\frac{1}{2}$ million is available for arable production, and this has led to intensive, rather than extensive, farming methods with widespread irrigation of drier lands.

Wheat, barley, maize, millet, and other cereals are grown in western China, while hemp, jute, and tobacco are also produced in many regions. Cotton production is probably about $2\frac{1}{2}$ million tons a year, and most of this comes from the fertile valleys of the Yangtze and Hwang Ho rivers.

The great Chinese rivers and the Pacific Ocean yield vast quantities of fish which, along with rice, forms the main food for the majority of the Chinese. Tea is as much the national drink of China as rice is the national food, and, moreover, it provides a major export. It is grown exclusively in the western and southern provinces.

Livestock farming, especially the breeding of pigs and poultry, is a major section of China's agriculture. Eggs are one of China's main exports.

The following statistics, giving the numbers of certain types of animals in 1959 and the targets it was hoped to reach in 1962, show vividly how increasing agricultural production is considered a major priority by the government.

	Cattle	Horses	Goats and Sheep	Pigs
1959	65·4 m	7·6 m	112·5 m	114 m
1962 (target)	90 m	11 m	170 m	250 m

Some of the traditional products made by Chinese craftsmen

THE BRONTËS

Charlotte Brontë (1816–1855)

FEW fathers have had more talented children than Patrick Brontë, an Irishman who became rector of the little moorland parish of Haworth in Yorkshire. Among his six children were three sisters, Charlotte, Emily, and Anne, who were to become outstanding novelists. The first two rank among the greatest of all novelists.

The girls were brought up on the bleak Yorkshire moor, with little contact with the outside world. Their mother died in September 1821, when Charlotte was only five years old. Her place in the home was taken by Patrick Brontë's sister-in-law, who was kindly but remarkably unsociable and uncommunicative, even to the point of eating her meals alone. Their father, though a talented man with two novels to his credit, was equally unsociable, moody, and isolated, and he too took his meals by himself. The result was that the girls' lives were spent cut off from other people, and they naturally turned in upon themselves and on a world of their own imagination. Together with their brother, Branwell, they developed a peculiar little game. They would construct a world of fanciful kingdoms and their inhabitants, and write about them on the backs of postage stamps. These they would share, and pass among themselves.

In fact, the Brontë sisters had strange, unnatural, and unhappy lives. Charlotte, who was born in 1816, died when she was only 39. Of the others, Emily (born 1818) died at 30, and Anne (born 1820) at 29. Their early years were spent at home and in bleak surroundings. They spent much time in absorbing the atmosphere of the moorland; and in a prolific and precocious range of writings. Charlotte, in particular, wrote, in a period of 15 months, no fewer than 23 'novels' before the age of 15.

Charlotte's difficulties

We know more about Charlotte than the other sisters. She was perhaps the most approachable, even normal, of all of them. She developed into a capable, competent young lady who, despite her tremendous shyness, was, nevertheless, of a powerful and independent spirit. Like her sisters, she grew up at Haworth, but she also spent a year (together with Emily) in the Clergy Daughters' School at Cowan Bridge. The grim atmosphere, poor food, and harsh discipline are vividly recorded in *Jane Eyre*, in Jane's miserable schooldays at Lowood. In 1831 Charlotte went to another school at Roe Head in Dewsbury, where she improved her drawing and French, and built up a friendship with Ellen Nussey. Her letters to Miss Nussey, which continued until the end of her life, contain much of the information we have of her life and her outlook. She returned to Haworth to look after her sisters, but soon it became obvious that something would have to be done about the poor state of the family's finances. In 1835 Charlotte decided to become a governess at her old school at Dewsbury. Emily

Emily Brontë (1818–1848)

accompanied her as a pupil, but she was so homesick that her stay lasted only three months, after which Anne took her place at the school.

In 1838 Charlotte became ill and returned to Haworth, but her illness did not prevent her thinking seriously about the deteriorating family finances. She sent some of her writings to the great poet Southey, but his discouraging replies only succeeded in depressing her and turning her mind to something more reliable than writing. She decided that more money could be made out of schooling – if she and her sisters actually ran their own school instead of taking posts as governesses. Her aunt agreed to finance the project.

Anne Brontë (1820–1849)

Visit to Brussels

In preparation for this venture Charlotte went to Brussels with Emily, to learn French – a happy visit spent under the able tutorship of Professor Heger, who was impressed by the talents of both girls. Their stay was cut short, however, by the sudden death of their aunt the following October. Emily, at least, was glad to return to England. She did not enjoy Brussels, and her passionate, brooding spirit longed for the wild moorland of Yorkshire and the clean air of the English countryside. On their return the sisters decided to take pupils at their father's vicarage house. Once more Charlotte returned to Brussels.

But she passed the whole of 1843 in almost constant unhappiness. Her devout religious principles were upset in a Roman Catholic atmosphere, while Madame Heger became unreasonably and unjustly jealous of her. It is indeed probable

that Charlotte herself was in love with Professor Heger; certainly her admiration and affection went far beyond any ordinary master-pupil relationship. Yet there is no evidence to justify Mme Heger's suspicions. Charlotte portrayed Professor Heger as M Paul in her novel *Villette*. In the same work Mme Heger appears as Mme Beck.

Literary success

Charlotte returned on 2nd January 1844, but the school was not a success. Prospectuses were issued, but no pupils came to the sisters' isolated vicarage school. At the same time Branwell (himself a talented writer and much loved by the girls) broke down and became a reprobate drunkard. It was about this time that the girls began to write in earnest, and to take each other into their confidence over their literary efforts. In 1846 they published, at their own expense, a book of poems under the names Currer, Ellis, and Acton Bell. The first letter of each pseudonym corresponds to that of their real names. The book sold only two copies. At the same time all three girls wrote a novel, but none could find a publisher. But in 1847 Charlotte received an encouraging letter from the firm of Smith and Elder. Though they rejected her novel, *The Professor*, they asked her to send them a romance she had told them she was in the midst of preparing. This romance was *Jane Eyre*, and the publisher's reader was so thrilled with it that he stayed up all night to read it. It was published in September 1847, and was an immediate success. Its brilliant characterisation, heart-felt passion, and astonishing realism established Charlotte at once as a very gifted writer. 'Currer Bell' became famous, and in 1848 Charlotte Brontë's real name was revealed as the author of this best-selling novel.

Charlotte's success brought her little happiness, for Branwell died on 24th September 1848, and, worst of all, Emily's health began to deteriorate rapidly. Charlotte had long been worried by the ill-health of both her sisters. Now Emily's breathing became very difficult and painful, and on 19th December she died.

Emily's death removed the most complex, enigmatic, and perhaps the most gifted of the Brontës. Little is known about her life. She was generally regarded as the best-looking of the sisters. Outwardly she was reserved and shy, yet somewhere in her make-up were all the passions and frustrations portrayed so powerfully in her one novel, *Wuthering Heights*.

There are those who say this novel was written by Charlotte, or that Branwell had at least a large share in it; but there seems little point in rejecting the evidence of Charlotte herself, who said that it was written by Emily. The savage intensity of the feelings of this extraordinary work shows us that somewhere Emily was nursing fires as deep as any novelist of her age. Yet the novel, published in December 1848, was not an immediate success, perhaps because one of its themes – the desire of a woman for a man – was thought crude. It is later generations that have been thrilled with the wild romance between Heathcliffe and Catherine, with the passionate nature-worship, and evocative descriptive writing of this most remarkable of all 19th-century English novels.

Only five months after Emily died, Anne followed her to the grave. This gentle, unassuming girl was the least talented of the sisters, and her two novels, *Agnes Grey* and *The Tenant of Wildfell*, survive only because of her famous name. Yet they have charm and grace, as do her religious poems. She did not have a poetic gift like Emily, some of whose poems show true genius; yet the friendship and trust between Emily and Anne, in many ways so different from each other, was the closest bond among the Brontë sisters.

Marriage and death

Charlotte recovered from her bitter succession of bereavements, and her new novel *Shirley* (the heroine being an idealised Emily) was published in October 1849. She was now established as a major novelist, and became a popular literary figure with a host of admirers. She was introduced into literary and intellectual circles, meeting Thackeray, Mrs Gaskell, and Matthew Arnold. In January the publication of *Villette* brought her added fame.

On 29th June 1854 she married her father's curate, Arthur Bell Nichols. This is surprising both because of her long schooling in self-sufficiency and independence, and because she once referred to curates as a 'self-seeking, vain, and empty race'. She had already rejected three proposals (all from curates), but what there was of her married life appears to have been happy enough. She began her marriage calling her husband 'my dear Mr Nichols'; she had just advanced to 'my dear Arthur' when suddenly, within a year of the wedding, she was dead. She died in childbirth on 31st March 1855, a date which marked the end of a brief but glowing epoch in the history of Victorian literature.

A memorable legacy

It is difficult to estimate the achievements of the Brontë sisters. In some ways their triumphs are as much personal as they are literary. It is astonishing that out of such restricted lives could have come the wealth of feeling and depths of passion which are contained in their greatest novels. Charlotte's style and technique were masterly, Anne's simple and charming, Emily's both brooding and explosive. And Emily and Charlotte, writing in a staid age of Victorian prudery, gave literature one memorable legacy. They wrote the first novels which describe how women, no less than men, can feel deep longings and desires. They showed that a woman could be the lover as well as the loved, and the tempted as much as the temptress.

The Brontë Museum, Haworth, with the girls' working table

The young Ferdinand rides to the fortress at Valladolid to claim his bride

THE 16th century was the 'Golden Age of Spain'. Her armies were reputed to be 'invincible'; her treasury was supplied with gold and silver from the New World; and she had a large empire, not only in Europe but also across the Atlantic in distant America. Yet in the mid-15th century there was no one country called Spain. What is now Spain was then divided up into a number of small kingdoms. The most important of these were Aragon and Castile, the others being Granada and Navarre. It was the momentous achievement of King Ferdinand of Aragon and Queen Isabella of Castile to unite these kingdoms into one nation, and so pave the way for the great expansion of 16th-century Spain.

An unpleasant man

Ferdinand was born at Sos in Aragon on 10th March 1452. He was the son of John II, King of Aragon, by his second wife. King John had a son, Charles, by his first wife, but favoured his second wife's children at Charles's expense. Through his mother, Joanna Henriquez, Ferdinand had a claim to the throne of Castile.

He was a most unpleasant man. Greedy and grasping, his whole life centred round a selfish desire for political power, prestige, and influence. It was in order to strengthen his claim to the throne of Castile that Ferdinand married his cousin Isabella, the Castilian heiress, at Valladolid in 1469. Isabella, born on 22nd April 1451, was the daughter of John II of Castile, and was descended, through both parents, from John of Gaunt. A year before her marriage to Ferdinand of Aragon, Isabella was proclaimed heir to the Castilian throne by her brother, King Henry IV.

King Ferdinand V of Castile and II of Aragon (1452–1516)

Claim to the throne

The King of Castile, Henry IV, died in 1474. Ferdinand at once tried to have himself proclaimed king, completely ignoring the claims of his wife. But Isabella was of a determined and able character, and would not allow Ferdinand to interfere with her resolve to play an active part in the government of Castile. In 1479 the union of the two kingdoms was accomplished – Ferdinand became King of Aragon and was recognised as King of Castile; at the same time Isabella was recognised as Queen of both kingdoms. In law the two kingdoms remained separate, but, in fact, they were ruled as one, and the two sovereigns set about establishing their authority firmly over their enlarged domain.

Queen Isabella (1451–1504) – *her patronage helped Columbus's voyage*

THE IBERIAN PENINSULA

Kingdom of Portugal – independent.

Kingdom of Castile – included Leon, Asturias, Galicia, Murcia, Cordoba, Seville; Jaen united 1479 with Aragon.

Kingdom of Aragon – included Valencia, Catalonia, Roussillon, Balearic Is; the most powerful kingdom.

Emirate of Granada – conquered in 1492.

Kingdom of Navarre – under French rule until 1506; its conquest completed the formation of modern Spain.

The Iberian kingdoms in the late 15th century

Establishing royal supremacy

Ferdinand and Isabella had identical views on how their territories should be governed. During the 15th century the nobles had become extremely rebellious and unruly, particularly in Castile. The first task, therefore, was to crush the rebellious nobles, and several battles were fought all over Castile. Eventually the nobles were defeated and their castles destroyed. The influence of the nobility in Castile was further reduced by the royal policy of excluding them from

Some of Isabella's personal possessions now in the Royal Chapel, Granada

FERDINAND AND ISABELLA

the Council, and relying on middle-class men as paid civil servants in the important offices.

The nobility were never weakened in Aragon to the same extent, and retained all their enormous authority. Here the *cortes* (parliaments) were dominated by the aristocracy, who were so powerful that royal power often seemed insignificant. In particular the *Justicia Mayor* (chief justice) had almost kingly powers. He crowned Aragon's kneeling kings with the words: 'We who are as good as you swear to you who are no better than we, to accept you as our king and sovereign lord, provided you accept all our liberties and laws; but if not, not.'

Ferdinand's ambitions were far from satisfied by the expansion of royal authority in Castile. He wanted to annex all the Spanish kingdoms, and in 1481 war was declared on Granada. Granada was Moorish, and its people were Muslims. Ferdinand and Isabella were both fervent Roman Catholics (titled 'The Catholic Kings' by the Pope), and the war was conducted with all the savagery of a crusade. In 1492 Granada surrendered, and became part of the Catholic Kings' territories.

The conquest of Granada resulted in a period of religious persecution in which Ferdinand and Isabella tried to impose their own religion on all their subjects. In 1492 all the Jews were expelled from Spain, an expulsion that was enforced on all those who would not forsake their religion and become baptised Christians. In all, about 165,000 Jews were driven out of Spain. In 1502 the Muslims in Granada were ordered to become converted under penalty of severe punishment. The Inquisition had already been introduced into Spain in 1478, to root out heresy by its terrible methods of relentless interrogation, torture, and execution.

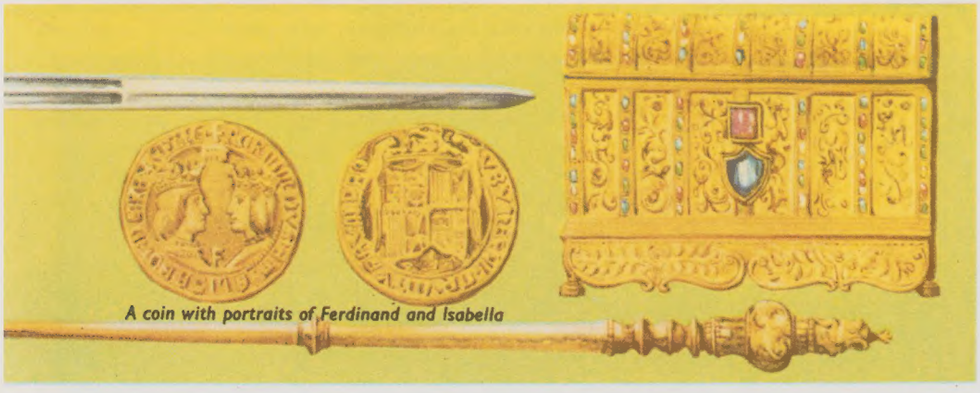
The opening of a New World

1492 is important not only for the conquest of Granada and the expulsion of the Jews. It was also the year in which Columbus discovered America (see page 1959). His voyage was largely the result of the enthusiastic support given by Queen Isabella. She became deeply involved in the overseas conquests which were rapidly adding to her dominions, and drew up plans for the government of the colonies and the regulation of trade which influenced legislation for centuries to come. Due to Isabella's support of Columbus, Spain became the first European country to gain a foothold in the New World. In 1494 the Treaty of Tordesillas was arranged with the Pope, by which all overseas possessions in the Americas were to be divided exclusively between Spain and Portugal.

Not content with their achievements in Spain and in America, the Catholic Kings turned their attention to Italy, where they fought against France for Italian possessions. In 1503 Naples was added to the kingdom of Aragon.

In addition to his quarrels with the French in Italy, Ferdinand made a determined effort to oust them from the Iberian peninsula itself. Since 1234 Navarre had been under a succession of French rulers to whom the kingdom had passed by marriage. The crown was claimed by the kings of Aragon, but it was only in 1506 that Ferdinand succeeded in enforcing this claim.

The conquest of Navarre completed the formation of what is now Spain, and in 1516 its annexation was formally recognised.



A coin with portraits of Ferdinand and Isabella

The dual throne of 'The Catholic Kings' in the royal palace at Segovia

Queen Isabella died in 1504. This should have resulted in the separation of Aragon and Castile, for Isabella's heir was to be her daughter, Joanna the Mad. But Ferdinand ignored the claims of Joanna's husband, Philip; persuaded the mad Joanna to abdicate; and continued to rule Castile, which he placed under the jurisdiction of Cardinal Ximines.

Ferdinand's unscrupulous behaviour was typical of him, but in his remaining years he conducted both his home and foreign affairs with remarkable success. His dishonest methods made his name a byword for broken promises, but nevertheless, when he died in 1516, his country owed him a great debt. Together with his Queen, he had unified Spain, built up royal power, and seen the beginnings of the great Spanish empire in the New World.

YOU SHOULD NOW KNOW

1. *When were Aragon and Castile united?*
2. *Who were 'The Catholic Kings'?*
3. *When was the Spanish Inquisition introduced?*
4. *What was the Treaty of Tordesillas?*
5. *Who was Joanna the Mad?*

CELLULOSE

THE silkworm devours the leaves of the mulberry tree, and spins for itself a cocoon of silk. Man, on a grander scale, treats wood pulp with chemicals to make a fair substitute for silk. Strangely enough they both use the same starting material – cellulose. This is the substance of which the walls of all vegetable cells are made, and thus it is both the food of the silkworm and the raw fibre of the rayon manufacturer. In fact, it is one of the most important raw materials in the world.

It is the fibrous nature of cellulose that makes it so valuable. The fibres can be used not only to form fine threads, as in rayon, but they can also be matted together, as in paper. Moreover the nature of the fibres can be altered, and useful materials with completely different qualities produced, by quite simple chemical procedures.

The sources and the uses of cellulose

By far the greatest part of the cellulose used in the world is derived from the great forests of spruce and fir in Scandinavia and Canada. These areas provide the vast amounts of wood pulp needed for the manufacture of paper, particularly newsprint. When the trees have been felled, their timber is cut into fragments, and pulped. The pulp is then transported to paper mills where it is bleached, sized with alum, and rolled into the thin sheets which we all use every day.

A second source of cellulose, and a very important one, is the fine hair which surrounds the seed of the cotton plant. This is a particularly rich source, as no less than 91 per cent of raw cotton consists of cellulose. Cotton is used for the manufacture of fabrics, lint, cotton wool, and, after chemical processing, explosives.

Other sources of cellulose are flax, which is used for linen; hemps, which are used for coarse materials such as sailcloth, carpet backing, and ropes; and jute, which is used for the manufacture of sacking. Besides these there are many miscellaneous sources of cellulose which provide materials for building and insulation.

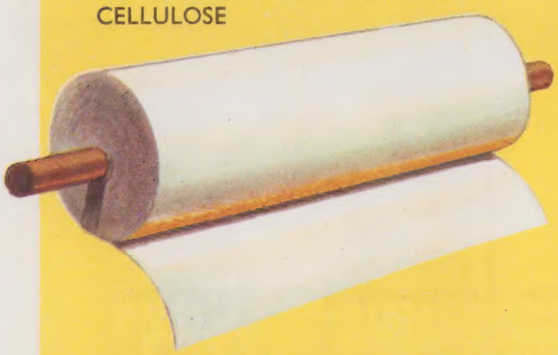
Derivatives of cellulose

If cellulose is treated with nitric acid in the presence of sulphuric acid, it is possible to attach one, two, or three nitrate radicals (NO_3^-) to each of the glucose molecules which form the cellulose molecule. The products, when two nitrate radicals are attached, are useful in the manufacture of film, of quick-drying lacquers, and of the plastic, *celluloid*. Unfortunately the inflammability of these cellulose derivatives is a very great disadvantage, and many of them have, in recent years, been replaced with safer materials. Almost complete nitration of cellulose yields the substance known as cellulose trinitrate. This is highly explosive, and is known commercially as gun-cotton or cordite. As its name indicates, the cellulose used in the manufacture of gun-cotton was originally derived from the cellulose of the cotton seed.

If cellulose is treated with acetic acid anhydride, cellulose acetate is formed. This material can be spun into fibres known as cellulose acetate rayon, moulded in presses to form familiar plastic objects, or drawn out in thin strips to make a non-inflammable base for cinematograph film.

Plant for the extraction of cellulose from wood

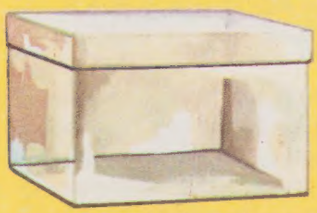
COMMODITIES OBTAINED FROM CELLULOSE



roll of paper

cinematograph film

rayon



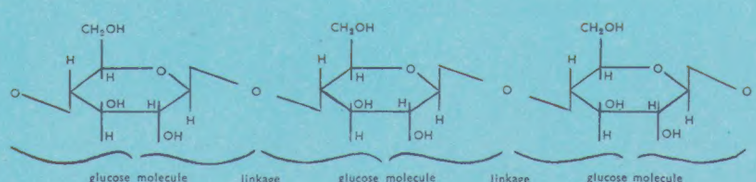
celluloid box

quick-drying lacquer

explosives

tubes of paint

PART OF CELLULOSE MOLECULE



The chemical structure of cellulose

Cellulose is a *polymer* of hexose anhydride ($C_6H_{10}O_5$), or anhydroglucose. The glucose molecules are joined together in a linear fashion with the elimination of a water molecule at each linkage. In a single cellulose molecule there may be as many as 4,000 glucose units.

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law-making rights to groups within Parliament. Such 'groups' may be Ministers of the Crown, or committees of the government. In fact, Parliament (Sovereign, House of Lords, House of Commons) can delegate law-making authority to the government! 'Delegated Legislation' acquires the force of law by virtue of the delegating Statute which authorises the making of the laws in question.

Judge-made law, however, evolved earlier than Statute Law, and its importance has always remained a peculiarity of the English legal tradition. It is a basic notion of any system of justice that 'like cases should be decided alike', and this notion caused the judges of the King's Courts, in the later Middle Ages, to develop the doctrine of **Precedent.** This means that a judge must decide the case which he is hearing in a certain way, if he finds that another judge in a similar case has already decided his case in that way. Thus each case decided becomes an 'authority' as to how similar cases are to be decided in future.

This is often a less precise way of settling what the law is than by legislation. But it has the practical advantage of being law worked out in the light of a particular situation. Statutes, on the other hand, have to be expressed in general terms, and the many different circumstances to which they apply may not all be visualised when they are originally drawn up.

Common Law and Equity

Judge-made law has come from two main sources. The judges of the King's Courts first evolved the doctrine of Precedent, and by means of it they built up a body of **Common Law** for the whole of England. At much the same time, the Lord Chancellor, the king's chief officer of State, also acquired power to sit as a judge and settle matters on which a subject had petitioned the monarch. This might occur where the Common Law gave a harsh result in a particular situation, or where it gave no remedy, so the wronged party would petition the monarch for redress. It was not until the 18th century that the Lord Chancellor began to adopt the Common Law doctrine of Precedent. When he did so, he began to build up a body of rules which were, in effect, an appendix to the Common Law, since they were rules to make up for deficiencies in that system. They came to be known as **Equity,** a name which underlines the original nature of the Chancellor's jurisdiction – to do what was fair and 'equitable' in unusual cases.

Since 1873, when the structure of the superior courts was modernised and unified, these two systems of judge-made law have been administered in the same courts. It is now no longer necessary to go to the Common Law Courts for the application of one rule of law, and the Equity Courts for another.

The composition of English Law

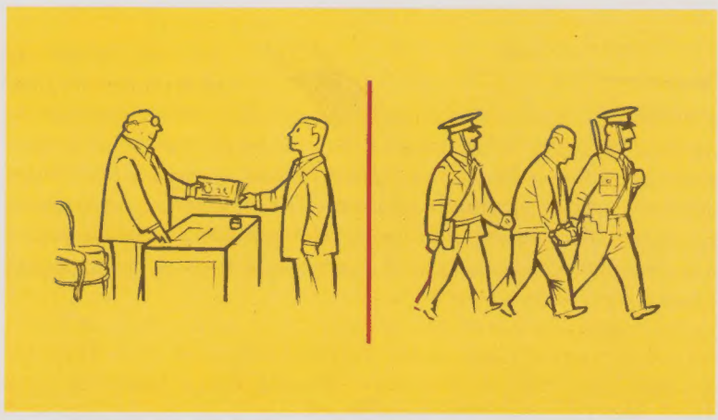
English Law is now a mixture of statute law and case law (made by the judges). In the 19th century most European countries went through periods of intensive legal reform in which most of their law was put into comprehensive statutory form, known as a Code. This was the practical result of a widespread school of thought which believed that all the rules necessary to govern a society could be drawn up and enshrined in one document. But this has proved to be an over-optimistic view; no set of law-makers at any one time can lay down one code of rules which will do justice in every case on every occasion.

English Law was not greatly affected by this movement of legal reform, except in its commercial law, where a series of comprehensive Statutes were passed to codify the existing Common Law. Thus we now have a Partnership Act, a Sale of Goods Act, and so on.

Much of the **Private Law** (which settles the rights of individual citizens among one another) is still in the form of case law. This is true, for instance, of the law of Contracts, which deals with the legal enforcement of agreements, and the law of Torts, which deals with rights to compensation for injuries done by one person to another.

Most of the **Public Law** (in which the State is concerned) is now Statutory. Thus much of the **Criminal Law,** which states what acts may not be done, on pain of prosecution and punishment, is no longer a matter of judge-made rule. And for many aspects of the modern State, Statutes have created law where there was none before. The laws under which the various elements of the Welfare State have been set up are an example of this; National Assistance, National Insurance, the National Health Service, the education system, the Town Planning authorities – all of these are established in this way. So too are the laws for the imposition of taxes, duties, and rates to pay for them.

Judge-made law often develops around a Statute to give further and more precise meaning to its general words. For instance, a Statute may state: 'Animals may not be taken on beaches except on a lead; maximum penalty: £5.' A judge might be asked in a particular case whether 'animals' included a parrot, or whether 'beaches' included a strip of sand on the bank of a river. What he decides will settle more exactly the meaning of the words in the Statute. So the judge too makes law where Statutes are concerned, but in a smaller way, of course, than Parliament.



Two applications of the law: on the left, compensation is being paid to an individual after an action in the civil courts; on the right, a man convicted by a criminal court is escorted to prison

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THE COURTS

The instrument of government which exists in most countries for the enforcement of law is a system of courts. In England, the courts are staffed by judges (or, in the lower courts, magistrates or justices) who are the **adjudicators**. In some cases a jury of 12 private citizens sits as well. There are various other court officials who do the administrative work concerning cases to be tried, and carry out the enforcement of judgments given. Any litigant may appear in court on his own behalf. But if he does not wish to do so, he can only be represented by a trained lawyer. In England there are two branches of the legal profession: **solicitors** and **barristers.** Solicitors do all the legal work not directly connected with appearances in court. They now have some right to be heard in the lower courts – the County Courts and the Magistrates' Courts – but not in the High Court, which is exclusively the province of the barrister. A person seeking legal advice must first go to a solicitor, who will retain a barrister on his client's behalf if this becomes necessary.

The structure of courts in England is a complex one. As in many countries, there are different courts to deal with criminal and civil matters. The difference between the two is basically that a criminal prosecution will result in conviction and punishment by the State, if the accused person is found guilty; whereas civil actions are aimed at giving one individual – the plaintiff – some compensation for a wrong or loss inflicted on him by another individual – the defendant.

CRIMINAL COURTS IN ENGLAND

Crimes are divided into two classes: the less serious, or **non-indictable** offences (such as causing an obstruction of traffic, or being drunk and disorderly); and other more serious, or **indictable**, offences (such as murder and theft). Non-indictable offences are disposed of *summarily* (directly and briefly) in a Magistrate's Court, where the adjudicators are often voluntary justices of the peace. Indictable offences first have a preliminary hearing in a Magistrate's Court, to decide whether there is any substance in the prosecution. If there is, the accused person is sent to be tried by judge and jury in a higher court. Anyone convicted in a criminal trial has the right to **appeal** to a higher court. He may object that the law was wrongly applied and that he should have been acquitted, or he may appeal against the sentence imposed on him. Criminal appeals may in certain cases be taken as far as the highest judicial tribunal and ultimate legal authority – the House of Lords. The process can be long and expensive. Fortunately, our system of **legal aid** now gives even a very poor litigant the chance to fight his case through all the appeal courts.

CIVIL COURTS IN ENGLAND

Civil actions start either in the County Courts (unless they are concerned with very large sums of money) or in the High Court of Justice. These cases include a very wide variety of actions, and they are divided between the three divisions of the High Court. From both these courts there is a right of appeal to the Court of Appeal, and thence to the House of Lords.

OTHER JUDICIAL BODIES

Apart from the regular court system in England, a variety of other tribunals has developed which exercise judicial functions. As the powers and functions of various branches of the government have increased, these tribunals have been given the right to hear certain disputes and claims. These new bodies are known as **administrative tribunals.** For instance, a government department may acquire a piece of John Smith's land by exercising compulsory purchasing powers. He will naturally want to claim compensation for his loss. He will only be able to do so before a Lands Tribunal and not in an ordinary court, although he may find that a right of appeal to a general court has been created by the Statute which established the tribunal.

Tribunals of this nature are very varied, and are not only connected with the administration of government departments. Many professions, for instance, have **disciplinary bodies** who investigate allegations of professional misconduct by a member of the profession. In 1956 the Restrictive Trade Practices Court was set up to investigate one particular kind of matter: whether certain agreements made among traders were in the public interest. The body is called a court, but it has many of the marks of an administrative tribunal – it is staffed by technical as well as legal experts, and it sits to hear only one particular kind of matter. It represents a link between the two types of judicial body which previously existed.

INTERNATIONAL LAW

So far we have been concerned with the system of law operating within one country – England. But there are also rules which are recognised as governing the rights and duties of nations. These are the rules of International Law, and they emerge from the establishment of internationally recognised customs. They determine, for instance, when one government should recognise the existence of another (for example, after a revolution); how one country should negotiate a treaty with another; and the extent to which the treaty should be binding on the signatories to it.

A court structure is slowly emerging for the enforcement of the rules of International Law. Thus the International Court of Justice has been established at The Hague, and hears many disputes of this type. The machinery for the creation and the administration of this law is, however, very much less highly organised than the machinery dealing with the internal law of a state. The process of slow evolution, which still awaits International Law, is one through which internal law has already passed in all but the most remote parts of the globe.